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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE RELATIONSHIP OF ALIENATION TO HIGHLY ORGANIZED SPORT

by

(C) VALERIE W. BLAKELY

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled The Relationship of Alienation to Highly Organized Sport submitted by Valerie W. Blakely in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to test the relationship of alienation (felt-powerlessness) to participation and non-participation in hockey.

The sample for the study consisted of 125 Junior High School boys ranging in age between 11 and 16 years, the average age being 14 years. The Bantam AA South Side Division was randomly selected from the Edmonton Metropolitan Hockey Association, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. Sixty hockey players were randomly selected from this group and 65 non-hockey players were randomly selected from a pool of Junior High School students provided by the Edmonton Public School Board. The sample was divided into low, middle and high socio-economic groups according to the Blishen socio-economic scale.

The instruments employed in the study included Internal-External Scale (IE); Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale (FPPS); and the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR). (See Alustap questionnaire in Patsula, 1969, pp. 125-134).

One question addressed to the study revealed that over half, 57% of the hockey sample brought four years or less experience to their hockey division; 22% had played for five years; 15% had played for six years; 3% had played for seven years and 3% for eight years.

The findings of question two indicated that the hockey sample had a higher representation from the lower class while the non-hockey sample had a slightly higher representation from both the middle and high socio-economic class (SES).

The subscales of the instrument (IE, FPPS, IAR+, IAR-), were

subjected to factor analysis in order to generate a general powerlessness score (GP) and a school related powerlessness score (SRP) for each student. It was found that the FPPS and the IE had heavier loadings on Component I (GP) and the two IAR subscales loaded more heavily on Component II (SRP). A GP and SRP were determined for each subject. The hockey and non-hockey groups were then subdivided into low, middle and high socio-economic groups according to the Blishen scale. A t-test for independent samples supported Hypothesis I that there is no significant difference between the hockey and non-hockey sample.

A Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance by ranks gave support to Hypothesis II that there is no significant difference between boys participating in hockey and those who do not participate in hockey and their feelings of general powerlessness or school related powerlessness.

An analysis of variance was then carried out to test Hypothesis III and thereby determine if the SES groups differed on any of the variables IAR+, IAR-, IAR Total, IE, FPPS, GP and SRP. No support emerged for the variables IAR+, IAR-, IAR Total, IE or SRP. However, a difference at the .05 level of significance was reported for the FPPS and the GP. This finding indicated that while no support was found for differences between the hockey and non-hockey groups, there was a reported difference between the SES groups. A Scheffe multiple comparison of means was carried out and it revealed a significant difference between the middle SES group and the high SES group on both the GP and FPPS variables.

Therefore, feelings of alienation (felt-powerlessness) seemed to be more a function of SES rather than whether boys play hockey or not.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction

The concept of man as an integrated being has a long history. The Grecian idea of "mens sana in corpore sano" was expressed both in word and deed during both the Golden Age of Pericles in Athens and the Greco-Roman period that followed. The etymology of the word gymnasium, which is Grecian in origin, states that it was a place to develop both the mind and the body. During the Dark Ages there was a split in this integrated concept and so the asceticism of the time was built upon a philosophy that saw the body needing both moral and social discipline. The 15th and 16th centuries ushered in a humanistic movement that served to revive the integrated man concept (Van Dalen, 1953, pp. 54-75). This concept currently is the foundation of many contemporary organizations.

According to Ingham and Loy, a humanistic view of sport sees sport as an autonomous form of social behavior. As such sport should be undertaken for its own sake and those engaged in its production should present behaviors which increase the playfulness of sport. From this perspective sport retains elements of voluntarism (Ingham and Loy, 1973, p. 6).

The arguments pro and con regarding highly organized sport for young people usually focus on levels of competition, maturation of the children, spectator involvement, organization and structure (Slusher, 1967, p. 175). For example, Dr. C.L. Lowman, distinguished surgeon for Los Angeles Orthopaedic Hospital and Medical Consultant for Los Angeles

city schools stated that he considered the movements to encourage highly organized competitive activity for boys and girls below the high school age to be especially dangerous, because neither skeletal growth, cartilages or joints, to say nothing of muscles are sufficiently developed for such strain. Furthermore, the emotional pressures of practice periods before the game, followed by either victory or defeat, cannot be totally understood because of immaturity (Bucher and Cohane, 1953, p. 74). Men like Slusher and Friendenberg however, seem to see a lack of freedom of choice as the main handicap of highly organized sport for the young. Slusher states that at the heart of actualization or "coming to be someone oneself" is the necessity of freedom of choice. When this freedom is reduced, so is the potentiality for fulfillment. Thus one has to question the place of sport in the lives of young children if and when this freedom is negated. Slusher highlights the calling of plays by the football coach, instead of the quarterback as an example of limiting the potential of each man. The aspect which causes Slusher most concern re highly organized sport centers around the element of "pretending" in the participants. He states that most of the youngsters seem to focus outside themselves as if they are fulfilling some sort of obligation to someone or something regarding what they ought to be doing. Play for these children appears not to be spontaneous or even voluntary but rather a necessity, a compulsion to act out what their culture tells them they should be. In most cases, Slusher says that these children are not aware of being and the sports activity becomes an artificial device to increase the obscurity of self (Slusher, 1967, pp. 175-176). Slusher's suspicions of organized athletic leagues for pre-high school children

is based on the fact that this type of sport seems to ask the child to master himself at an age when he might well be involved in a process of exploration of becoming. Taking young people and causing them to become "a form of stimuli-reacting organism, of robotized will" is not his idea of sport for the young (Slusher, 1967, p. 188).

The adolescent age has been sometimes called the gang age and the central problem is that of identity but unless one has learned the worth and power of the self, one is not able to fight for larger values and the rights of groups. There is, then, a danger in closely-knit team activities that begin too young that the satisfaction of the individual comes not so much from the success and close experience of the team as from the individual notice and pat on the back and praise at home, school and paper. From this can develop the attitude that being a good sport means going along with the gang, doing what the leader tells you to do and being a loyal follower of a dictator - in other words being really outer directed.

If Slusher's hypothesis is correct, then it is quite probable that children who play highly organized sport are or become outer directed. At the Junior High School level in our country children have the opportunity to participate in the highly organized sport of hockey. Some choose to so participate, others do not. Could this choice in some way be related to feelings of powerlessness?

The literature in physical education, according to Woodworth, has been filled with references to the development of one's physical, mental, emotional and social well being (Woodworth, 1948, p. 121). Yet, while the references were plentiful, especially in the early 30's and 40's, there was little actual data to back up what was being extolled. Since

that time efforts have been made to obtain more evidence about the relationship of the physical, intellectual, emotional and social growth of man.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study, therefore, was to carry out an explorative study to determine the relationship, if any, between Junior High School boys who participate in a highly organized sport and Junior High School boys who do not participate in a highly organized sport and their feelings of felt-powerlessness.

Significance of the Study

According to the official Canadian Amateur Hockey Association Handbook, the first organization actually dealing with the administration and development of the sport was the Ontario Hockey Association which was organized on the 27th of November, 1890 (C.A.H.A. Handbook, 1970, p. 92).

With the passage of time, other parts of Canada organized and on December 4th, 1914, the first meeting to provide for a national body was held in the Chateau Laurier Hotel at Ottawa. The impetus for that organization was provided by a group of men from the city of Winnipeg, Manitoba. Over the years the Association has become a truly National sport governing body. The first annual meeting was held in Winnipeg on December 10th, 1915. At that meeting the Allan Cup competition was decided upon.

It was not until 1919 that a Junior Dominion championship was provided for and the Memorial Cup was set up as its prize. The introduction of the Memorial Cup to the national scene stimulated

interest in junior hockey and this has continued throughout the years. The greatest expansion in recent years is undoubtedly on the minor hockey level. The development of Provincial and Regional playoffs, and many other promotional programs developed by the Association and its branches has, in our modern era, brought thousands of Canadian boys into organized hockey. A major promotional project was instituted in 1958, and Minor Hockey Week in Canada, held annually in January, is now an important feature in Canada's Minor Hockey Program. The player registration for the 1968-69 season in the Canadian Association is indicative of its growth. Of a total registration of 332,744, over 290,000 were registered in the Minor Hockey Division (C.A.H.A. Handbook, 1970, pp. 92-101). A further indication of the phenomenal growth of Minor Hockey is reported in the 600,271 players registered with the C.A.H.A. in the 1973-1974 season (C.A.H.A. Handbook, 1974, p. 55).

Bantam AA league is open to players under fifteen years of age on December 31st in the season in which they wish to compete and are categorized as per Juvenile (Alberta Amateur Hockey Association Constitution and By-laws, 1969, p. 27).

Bantam AA began in Edmonton during 1962-1963 and was incorporated into the Societies Act in 1964. In 1961-1962 there were 240 teams, in 1969-1970 there were 603 teams and in 1973-1974 there were 816 teams (E.M.H.A. Team and Player Statistics, 1973/74). During 1969-1970 there were five rinks with artificial ice, two natural ice shells, 25 city outdoor rinks and 13 city community rinks and in 1973-1974 there were seven artificial ice rinks, six natural ice shells, 26 city outdoor rinks and 11 city community rinks.

The estimated number of players as recorded in the Edmonton

Minor Hockey Association in 1969-1970 was over 11,000. There were 13,000 players reported registered in June, 1972 (Powers, 1972, p. 1). and a reported 15,000 players registered in the 1973-1974 season (E.M.H.A. Team and Player Statistics, 1973/74). The season begins each year approximately November 1st and ends in mid-February, exclusive of playoffs. The number of games per season is 25, exclusive of practice and playoffs.

From these brief highlights it is easily seen that this highly organized sport has captured the time and efforts of a considerable number of our young folk. Since this is a fact in our society and since our children are our greatest natural resource, it seems highly significant to address ourselves to finding out as much as we can about highly organized sport and the children who do and who do not choose to participate in them. Compared with the amount of research in other areas of physical education, there is a paucity of research in this country regarding sports and their psychological implications, especially at the pre-highschool level.

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to a sample of boys since E.M.H.A. has been set up only for boys. Boys involved in the Minor League Bantam AA group were the only hockey players tested. The intelligence variable was not considered in this study as permission to view the student record cards was not granted to the writer. Age ranges for both those who participated in a highly organized sport and those who did not were 12 years or less to 16 years and over.

Assumptions of this Study

It is assumed that the Alustap questionnaire adopted from Philip J. Patsula (1968) provided an adequate instrument for determining the measures of general powerlessness and school related powerlessness.

Definitions of Terms

Sport — The term sport is derived from the word disport. According to A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles disport meant sport pasttime, recreation, pleasure and was first used in literature in 1303 (Murray, 1933). The term sport as we know it today is usually interpreted in a broad general sense and embraces all those activities which require physical performance (movement), involve some degree of skill and/or conditioning, and embody a pattern of performance and/or a set of recognizable rules (Eyler, 1969, p. 141). No one particular sport necessarily qualifies under all the above requirements.

Hockey — According to Webster and as herein used is an ice-rink game in which players on the two sides try to score goals by driving the puck into the opponent's goal.

E.M.H.A. — Edmonton Metropolitan Hockey Association.

Felt Powerlessness — The idea of alienation powerlessness is, perhaps, the most frequent usage in current literature. This variant of alienation is described as "the expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behavior cannot determine the occurance of the outcomes or the reinforcements he seeks" (Seeman, 1959, p. 789).

	Powerlessness emphasizes the sensed ability to be able to personally control outcomes in one's own life.
IE	Internal-External Scale which measures the degree which a person perceives that an event is contingent upon his own behavior (internally oriented) or power of others or other forces (externally oriented).
IAR+	Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire items describing positive achievement experiences.
IAR-	Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire items describing negative achievement experiences.
IAR Total	Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire items describing the total positive and negative achievement experiences.
FPPS	Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale measures the degree that an individual feels he is simply a cog and unable to exhibit personal control over his relevant environment.
GP	General Powerlessness is a component score determined from the FPPS and the IE scales.
SRP	School-Related Powerlessness is a component score determined from the two IAR subscales.
SES	Socio-Economic Status.

Questions and Hypotheses Addressed to the Study

Questions addressed to the study are:

I. What is the average number of years of experience playing hockey that the players brought to the Bantam AA league?

II. What is the pattern of representation in regard to the socio-economic groups?

Hypotheses addressed to the study are:

I. There is no significant difference in the SES levels for Junior High School boys who participate in highly organized sport and those who do not participate in highly organized sport.

II. There is no significant difference between Junior High School boys who participate in a highly organized sport and those who do not participate in a highly organized sport and:

a) GP

b) SRP

III. There is no significant difference between the SES groups and:

a) IE

b) IAR+

c) IAR-

d) IAR Total

e) FPPS

f) GP

g) SRP

Overall Plan of the Study

Chapter I presented an introduction to the study, the purpose and significance of the present work, limitations, assumption, definition of terms, the hypothesis directed to the study and the theoretical base for

the study.

Chapter II deals with related research. Chapter III highlights the design and procedure of the study. At this point the method of sampling, the instruments and procedure followed in administering the tests is discussed.

Chapter IV describes the procedure to be followed in the statistical analysis of the data as well as a summary of the findings, presented in tabulated form. The final chapter is addressed to the implications, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The present chapter is an effort to provide background for the study and is divided into three sections. The first section is addressed to the concept of alienation; the second section generally to participation and non-participation in sport and specifically to hockey; and the third section to alienation within sport.

The first section of the present chapter will direct itself to introducing the concept of alienation; tracing the background of this concept and arriving at an operational definition of alienation for this investigation.

ALIENATION

Introduction

In the introduction to Man Alone, a popular anthology of writings on the subject of alienation, the Josephsons state that ours is a self conscious age. Perhaps never before in history has man been so much of a problem to himself. Rocketing through space and on the verge of conquering the heavens, man is losing touch with his own world. Growing numbers of writers describe him in various ways as alienated (Josephson and Josephson, 1962, p. 9). Modern thinkers such as Eric Fromm, claim that alienation in society is almost total (Fromm, 1941, p. 17). Oppenheimer, when discussing the acceleration and complexity of change in modern times, writes that the one thing that is new in our era "is the prevalence of newness, the changing scale and scope of change itself". In fact, Oppenheimer states the world alters as we walk in it so that

"the years of man's life measure not some small growth or rearrangement or moderation of what he learned in childhood, but a great upheaval" (Oppenheimer, 1961, p. 1). It seems evident that as society grows more complex, man's ability to cope has diminished.

The Josephsons observed that alienation has been employed in modern times by social scientists and others to refer to such a variety of disorders as "loss of self, anxiety states, anomie, despair, depersonalization, rootlessness, apathy, social disorganization, loneliness, atomization, powerlessness, meaninglessness, isolation, pessimism, and the loss of beliefs and values" (Josephson and Josephson, 1962, pp. 12-13).

No simple definition of alienation can do justice to the many intellectual traditions which have engaged this concept as a central explanatory idea. One basis for this confusion is the fact that the idea of alienation has incorporated philosophical, political, sociological and psychological orientations. Nisbet stated that alienation is one of the determining realities of the contemporary age: not merely a key concept in philosophy, literature and the social sciences . . . but a cultural and psychological condition implicating ever larger sections of the population (Nisbet, 1962, p. viii).

Background

The concept of alienation has a long history. Karl Jaspers, in his work Man in a Modern Age, tells us that men from the earliest times have experienced uncertainty about themselves and suffered the anguish of despair, detachment and separation from one another. Jaspers quotes an Egyptian chronicler of 4,000 years ago who noted: "People are saying:

'we do not know what will happen from day to day' . . . no public office stands open where it should, and the masses are like timid sheep without a shepherd" (Jaspers, 1957, p. 15).

In the middle ages, alienation had a religious connotation in that man established a communion with his God and so completed his being. Religion, according to Barrett, was a psychological matrix which sanctified ordinary and extraordinary occasions in sacrament and ritual. However, with the rise of Protestantism, the entire system of ritual, symbols and dogma which gave meaning to religious experience was lost.

In losing his concrete connection with religion, man was set free to deal with the world in all its brute objectivity. This world however, no longer answered the needs of his spirit and so man felt homeless. According to Barrett "to lose one's psychic container is to be cast adrift, to become a wanderer upon the face of the earth" (Barrett, 1957, pp. 21-25). With the loss of meaning in the spirit realm, man was forced to rely on his reason to find meaning in the world, and in his life.

The early socialists contended that it was not the intangible relationship with a distant god that led man to an alienated existence, rather man's state was the result of tyrannous and irrational society. Men were victims of society who could not understand or control the social effects of their own activities (Plamenatz, 1957, pp. 38-39).

For Hegel, the human spirit was in constant war with itself and therefore alienation was a common human condition. In order for human achievement to come to be, the spirit must overcome the limiting aspects of its nature by continually engaging in conflict with that part (Josephson and Josephson, 1962, p. 27). The ultimate goal of the human spirit is full equality with the world spirit.

Ludwig Feuerbach provided a link between Hegel's metaphysical concept of the spirit and Marx's socio-economic concept of life. For Feuerbach, alienation represented any state which separated man from the true realization of his own nature. The artificial imposition of societal norms, rules and values upon the individual forced man to live according to objective criteria rather than by his own personal criteria. According to Marx it was Feurbach who wrenched the spirit from its absolute mold and gave to man the responsibility for and the recognition of his own destiny (Marx, 1961, p. 145).

This preoccupation with human nature established materialism as a science which held a concept of man as nothing but matter in motion with no transcendent aspects to his nature.

With Marx the concept of alienation lost its abstract philosophical context and was set within the concrete social situation of the alienating process of labor. According to Marx, mass production techniques separated the worker from the products and processes of work from himself and others. This separation placed the productive worker in a subservient position in regard to the capitalist owner. The worker must accept his place in the owner's production line, thus he became estranged like the products he produced (Planenatz, 1963, p. 377). Marx assumed that a society could not last which did not consider the innate capacities of man. The separation of man from his natural capabilities produced the estrangement of man from himself and from others.

Emile Durkheim rejected the assumption posited by Marx that a society could not exist which did not consider the innate capacities of man. "Individualism, according to Durkheim, resulted in the masses of normless, unattached, insecure individuals who lost even the capacity for

independent creative living" (Nisbet, 1962, pp. 14-15).

Alienation for Durkheim, was a social condition. Individuals need to experience the limitations of some form of social context. According to Durkheim, meaning and stability are given to individual actions by reference to a rigid social system.

The existentialists rejected the collective orientation of Durkheim and proclaimed the need and desire to shape their own existences. According to Kaufmann, the existentialists refused to belong to any school of thought; they repudiated the adequacy of any body of beliefs whatever, especially systems (Kaufmann, 1956, p. 12).

In summary, we hear the people of the middle ages tell us that communion with God is the way to overcome alienation. Hegel, Feuerbach, and Marx would have man realize his human capacities to overcome alienation. Durkheim would stress that the only way to overcome alienation is through restraint found in society's rules, norms and values. The existentialists would have us stand out against any school of thought, body of beliefs, and systems to affirm the self in the face of alienation.

An Operational Definition of Alienation

According to Israel, one of the theoretical problems regarding the term alienation is the fact that it has been employed in very different ways. Two usages which seem to predominate are: one referring to sociological processes and one to psychological states. In modern Marxist representation, the Soviet Russian philosopher Ogurzov maintains that alienation is a philosophical-sociological concept and that bourgeois sociology can be criticized for psychologizing alienation (Israel, 1971,

p. 5). Seeman, for example, defines alienation in terms of psychological states experienced by the individual (Seeman, 1961, pp. 753-758).

The social-psychological orientation of alienation holds that it is the quality of an individual's relation with society and how the individual feels about this relationship, that is, the focus of alienation. Alienation then, signifies a separation between personality and significant aspects of experience. This separation involves an attitude held by an individual toward some focus and this attitude is likely to be reflected in some peculiar behavioral response (Kenniston, 1965, p. 452). The degree of alienation may then be determined by attitude measurement.

If attitude measurement is the procedure chosen then appropriate definitions are provided by Seeman's summary of the five basic ways in which the term has been used. In summary these are:

1. Powerlessness: the expectancy held by the individual that his own behavior cannot determine the occurance of the outcomes or reinforcements he seeks.
2. Self-Estrangement: the degree of dependence of a given behavior upon anticipated future rewards.
3. Normlessness: a high expectancy that socially unapproved behaviors are required to achieve given goals.
4. Meaninglessness: a low expectancy that satisfactory predictions about future outcomes of behavior can be made.
5. Isolation: assigning low reward value to goals or beliefs that are typically highly valued in a given society.

Within Rotter's frame of reference, individuals exhibiting <u>internal control</u> are depicted as those individuals who are more likely to believe

that what happens to them in a particular situation depends upon their own efforts, that is, they are effective agents in their own lives; they perceive positive and/or negative events as being consequences of their own actions. Individuals portraying external control are seen as people who perceive the consequences of their actions as being caused by outside forces; i.e. luck, chance, fate, supernatural powers, more powerful others. Seeman, in his work (1963, 1966, 1967) has preferred to use the term "powerlessness" rather than "external control" as does Rotter.

Much of the later work of Seeman (1962, 1963, 1966, 1967) and others (Bailer, 1961; Crandall, Katkovsky and Preston, 1962; Battle and Rotter, 1963) has been centered on the "powerlessness" aspect of alienation.

Measurement of the degree of children's alienation requires a rather strict definition of alienation. Therefore, the definition of alienation accepted for the purpose of this study was felt-powerlessness as defined by Seeman.

Related Studies

The concept of alienation which for years has played an important role in sociological theory, does seem to be related at a group level to a variable of internal-external control. The alienated individual feels unable to control his own destiny. Marx, and Durkheim placed great importance on this concept. Seeman linked the concept of alienation as powerlessness to internal-external control as a psychological variable (Rotter, 1966, p. 3). In the present study SES is the only variable tested along with the participation, non-

participation in highly organized sport variable.

Viewing socio-economic status, lower class individuals in studies representing various age, educational and economic levels have been found to generally score more in the direction of externality than middle and upper class children (Strodtbeck, 1958; Dean, 1961; Franklin, 1963; Battle and Rotter, 1963; Lefcourt and Ladwig, 1965; Patsula, 1968; Seeman, 1962, 1963, 1966, 1967).

In respect to the relation of alienation to sex, Meier and Bell (1959), Mizruchi (1960), Rhoades (1964) found that girls have higher, even though statistically non significant anomia scores than boys. Patsula (1968) found that there was a tendency for boys to have generally higher alienation scores than girls did.

For the relationship of alienation and intelligence Bailer (1961), testing mentally retarded and normal children, and Preston (1962), testing primary grade children, found significantly positive relationship between intelligence and perceived internal locus of control. The findings of Seeman and Evans (1962), Seeman (1963) and Rotter (1966) did not support such a relation.

In general, the SES variable appears to be the only variable which consistently reports a pattern in regard to its relation to alienation. The lower the SES, the more children are exteriorly oriented.

Sport - Participation and Non-Participation

To give context to this section of the study, a discussion on the nature of sport offers a frame of reference within which the studies related to participation and non-participation in sport are studied. In the article by Loy (1968) The Nature of Sport: A Definitional Effort,

sport is discussed as a game occurance, as an institutionalized game, as a social institution and as a social system.

The most common understanding of the term sport is probably within the context of sport as a game occurance. Games require minimum skill and are ordinarily undertaken for the sheer fun of participation. Sports on the other hand, require skill and organization. The institutionalizing of games into sport takes place when the rules and regulations necessary to games take on specific organization and lay out the conduct, format and scheduling for ensuing games. This institutionalization of sport proceeds through organizational, technological, symbolic and educational spheres. The organizational sphere relates directly to setting up teams, establishing sponsorship and outlining the government of the sport. The technological sphere relates to the skills and equipment needed for the sport. The symbolic sphere relates to those aspects of secrecy, of dressing-up and ritual associated with the sport. The educational sphere relates to the skills and knowledge necessary to the sport and the stylized manner of acquiring the same.

As in other institutions in society, such as religion, education, and business, sport as an institution mirrors the social order and as such plays an important role in socializing people regarding the values, interests and prevalent attitudes of society. The social machinery for running even little league and minor league sports mirrors the organizational, managerial and bureaucratic aspects of other institutions.

When describing sport as a social system, Loy points out that the person's behavior is governed in large measure by the structures and processes inherent to the sport in which he is functioning. As such sport is a highly complex network of roles, interactions and relationships

which are necessarily different in degree and kind for each sport (Loy, 1968, pp. 1-15).

Athletic participation in competitive sports today tends to be strongly oriented toward winning. Winning often means conforming to what the media wants and what spectators, friends, parents and last but not least, to what the coach wants.

When one studies the various dimensions of sport, one understands why men like Slusher (1967) question the feasibility of highly organized sport for young children. Slusher sees the lack of freedom of choice as the main handicap of highly organized sport for the young.

Highly organized and competitive sports for young people has been frowned upon for physical, psychological and emotional reasons. Keene, 1942; Lowman, 1947; McNeely, 1952 and Morris, 1952 represented those who cite evidence to indicate that boys may be harmed physically by such activity. Jersild and Jones, 1939; Shafer, 1945; Fait, 1951 and Solomon, 1953 represent those who have written of the psychological effects of highly organized sport while Solomon, 1953 and Boucher, 1953 represent those who stress the emotional harm of highly organized sport.

In spite of the studies that question the advisability of highly organized sport, sports for the young continue to grow. The literature regarding sport for the young is directed mainly to determining the traits peculiar to those who successfully participate in sport. The design for most of these studies looks at those who participate in sport as against those who do not participate in sport. For example, physical prowess at least for males, tends to be associated with social prestige and popularity (Jones, 1946) unique character and

personality traits, (Cavanaugh, 1942; La Place, 1954; Booth, 1958; Merriman, 1960; Kane, 1964); being esteemed by one's classmates, (Brace, 1954; Cowell and Ismail, 1962); personal and social adjustment, (Biddulph, 1954; Cowell and Ismail, 1962; Smart and Smart, 1963; Coleman, Keogh and Mansfield, 1963); leadership skills, (Stogdill, 1948), social status, (Tuddenham, 1951; McGraw and Tolbert, 1953).

Clarke and Petersen studied the contrast of maturational, structural and strength characteristics of athletes and non-athletes 10 to 15 years of age and found that boys who are successful on interschool athletic teams are definitely superior in maturity, body sizes and build, both absolute and relative (to weight and age) muscular strength and explosive muscular power (Clarke and Petersen, 1961, p. 115).

According to Schendel, ninth grade athletes generally possess desirable personal-social psychological characteristics to a greater extent than non-participants in athletics at the same grade level. Ninth grade athletes, compared to ninth grade non-participants in athletics: (a) possess more qualities of leadership and social initiative, (b) possess more qualities that lead to status, (c) are more sociable, (d) possess a greater sense of personal worth, (e) have less self doubt and make fewer complaints, (f) have more social maturity, (g) are more conventional in their responses to social situations, and (h) possess greater intellectual efficiency (Schendel, 1965, p. 66).

A rather exhaustive examination of studies directed to determining personality traits of athletes appears in a recent work by Alderman.

When one examines the studies directed only to younger children, one would have to agree with Alderman when he states so very succinctly that the identification of personality traits in athletes appears to be

strictly a function of the tests used (Alderman, 1974, p. 151).

Alienation and Sport

Traditionally adolescence has been viewed as a critical period in development. According to Mussen, Conger and Kagan, behavior scientists have tended to agree that adolescence represents a period of particular stress in our society. Others have tended to hold society responsible for the adolescents' difficulties, emphasizing the numerous, highly concentrated demands which our society has made upon youth at this time - demands for independence, for heterosexual and peer adjustments, for vocational preparation, and for the development of a basic guiding philosophy of life (Mussen, Conger, Kagan, 1963, p. 605).

One institution in society where children are expected to produce and win is in highly organized sport.

Friedenberg states that some of Slusher's most penetrating comments pertain to little league sports, which he sees as frequently alienating the children who take part in them from any sporting sense they might develop: the children do not feel that they are doing their own thing and either go about the game as if driven or develop a slick professional approach inappropriate to their age and actual level of competence (Slusher, 1967, p. xiii).

Many of the questions and much of the concern regarding hockey in Canada today reflects in some ways the concern that parents and educators were voicing about little league baseball in the United States in the early 50's. See for example "A Study of Little League Baseball in Operation", carried out by the Recreation Department, Fresno, California in 1951; "The Little League", Life Magazine, June 28,

1954 and "Little League Baseball Can Hurt Your Boy", by Charles Bucher, Look Magazine, August 11, 1953.

Statistics based on young hockey players in Canada show trends, according to C.A.H.A.'s signed cards, that a high percentage of boys quit the game by their 15th or 16th birthday. Trends seem to show an overemphasis on sports for boys under 12 and the number of organized leagues for boys under 12 as well as a lack of organized leagues for boys over 16. Specialization within highly organized leagues takes over at too early an age to curb desired aims of the game.

Fiddler's stand coincides with Hansen (Hansen, 1970, p. 31) when he states that the minor hockey set-up in Canada is a system designed to provide hockey players for professional hockey teams. In keeping with this motive the accent is on performance rather than participation and past the age of 14, little attention is paid to individuality and personality differences (Fiddler, 1970, p. 5).

With the accent on winning and performance in hockey and reinforcement for the same meted out by most of the significant persons within a child's social matrix, the possibility of becoming outer directed or alienated within highly organized sport appears to be high.

King, studying Junior High School hockey playing students, found that there was a definite trend in adjustment to school among hockey playing students that differentiated them from non-hockey playing students. As they became more involved in hockey however, their teachers perceived them as being less cooperative, less reliable, less industrious and as having a lesser chance of success in the following grade. In general, there was a decline in school achievement in ratio to hockey involvement. It seems that the rewards gained from playing

hockey are greater than from being a student. Another reason for the drop in intellectual achievement is that hockey schedules are not set out with school examinations in mind and often games require absenteeism (King, 1968, pp. 25-28).

Only one study to this author's knowledge is directed to the relationship of alienation or locus of control and an aspect of physical activity. Sonstroem and Walker found that internally oriented subjects with more favorable attitudes toward physical activity obtained significantly better fitness scores and reported significantly greater amounts of voluntary physical exercise than did the rest of the sample. This study was directed to university subjects (Sonstroem and Walker, 1973, p. 1031). To date no studies have been directed to the relationship of alienation and highly organized sport.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

In order to answer the questions and test the hypotheses addressed to this study, data was collected from a population of 125 junior high school students in the city of Edmonton, Canada between the 1970-1971 seasons. The present chapter will describe the sample, instruments and the testing procedure of this study.

THE SAMPLE

The sample comprised 125 subjects from the city of Edmonton, Canada and was selected in the following manner. Officials of Edmonton Metropolitan Hockey Association (E.M.H.A.) were approached for listings of teams and team members. Since the city was divided by E.M.H.A. into divisions, a random selection of one division was made. Within that division the Bantam AA South Side Division was selected as this was the age range desired. Coaches and managers of each of the teams were approached and permission was obtained to work with the teams. The study was explained and the managers were asked if they would call their teams together for the administration of the questionnaire to all members of the six south side teams. A random selection of 60 hockey players was made from these groups.

The Edmonton Public School Board was then approached and permission was granted to work in two junior high schools in the south side of the city. All junior high school students in grades 7, 8 and 9 physical education classes in Hardisty Junior High School and Vernon

Barford Junior High School were tested. Of this sample any student who played hockey in any organized team supervised by E.M.H.A. or a similar organization elsewhere was deleted from the sample. Random numbers were assigned and a selection of 65 boys was made. All random selections conducted within this study were made using the Table of Random Digits prepared by the Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics of the Interstate Commerce Commission, Washington, D.C. (Walker and Lev, 1958, p. 280).

The following table highlights the preliminary demographic data on the 125 subjects selected for this study.

TABLE I

PRELIMINARY DEMOGRAPHIC DATA
ON THE 125 SUBJECTS

Variable	Groups	Data					Totals
Age in Years		12 or less	13	14	15	16 or over	
	Hockey	2	12	31	15		60
	Non-Hockey	10	10	24	20	1	65
	Total	12	22	55	35	1	125
Number of Years in School		6 or less	7	8	9	10	
	Hockey	1	5	24	30		60
	Non-Hockey	1	13	15	33	3	65
	Total	2	18	39	63	3	125
Number of Years Playing Hockey		4 or less	5	6	7	8	
	Hockey	34	13	9	2	2	60
	Non-Hockey	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	34	13	9	2	2	60

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS SCALE (SES)

Subjects were assigned SES scores on the basis of the Blishen Socio-Economic Index for Occupations in Canada (1967). In the present study, the mean SES score for the total group is 50.29 with a standard deviation of 15.75. Table II indicates the number of hockey players and non-hockey players in each of the low, middle and high SES groups.

TABLE II

SES OF THE SAMPLE

SES	Hockey		Non-Hockey		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Low SES	20	33	11	17	31	24
Medium SES	29	48	38	58	67	53
High SES	11	18	16	25	27	21
Total	60		65		125	

THE INSTRUMENTS

To gather the necessary data the following tests were used.

The Internal-External Scale (IE)

Description. The IE Scale consists of 29 forced choice items, 23 of which deal with the individuals' expectations about how reinforcement is controlled in a wide variety of situations. The remaining six items are merely fillers. Within the Alustap questionnaire the IE items are numbered 35 through 63 inclusive. The filler items are numbered 35, 42, 48, 53, 58 and 61.

Scoring. The IE items of the Alustap questionnaire are scored in the direction of external choices. A high score denoted high externality or powerlessness. (Key: 36a, 37b, 38b, 39b, 40a, 43a, 44b, 45b, 46b, 47b, 49b, 50a, 51a, 52a, 54a, 55a, 56b, 57a, 59a, 60b, 62b, 63a).

Validity. In the development of the scale Rotter (1966) conceptualized the IE scores as measuring the construct of generalized expectancies in respect to the locus of control of reinforcements. Correlations with other methods of obtaining some indication of an individual's degree of felt powerlessness were reported by Rotter (1966).

Reliability. Reasonable estimates of internal consistency were reported by Rotter (1966) for example: Spearman-Brown, .65 to .79; Kuder-Richardson, .69 to .76; test-retest, .49 to .83). An internal consistency index of .64 (Pearson Product-Moment, one-month lapse, N = 79) was reported by Patsula (1969).

The Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale (FPPS). The FPPS is a shortened and revised version of the scale derived from the factor analysis of Dean's Alienations Scale, Scrole's Anomie Scale, and McClosky-Schaor's Anomy Scale (Patsula, 1968). High scores on the revised scales reflect an individual who feels that he is simply a cog and does not really have any control or power over his own environment. Such an individual, according to Fromm " . . . does not experience himself as the center of his world, as the creator of his own acts" (Fromm, 1955, p. 120). The FPPS items of the Alustap questionnaire are numbered 64 through 94 inclusive. Subjects answered the FPPS items by

checking one of five alternatives: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree. These responses were scored from one to five, with five indicating the greatest amount of perceived personal powerlessness. The FPPS total scores were arrived at by simply adding the scores.

Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR)

Description. The IAR measures the degree to which the child believes that his successes and failures in common intellectual-academic achievement situations result from his own efforts (internal responsibility) as opposed to the behavior and reactions of other important adults or peers (external responsibility), consists of 34 forced-choice questions with 17 items describing positive achievement experiences and 17 items describing negative achievement experiences. Each stem is followed by two alternatives, one attributing the cause of the achievement experience to the child's own behavior while the other attributes the cause to an external source.

The external agents in the IAR scale are confined solely to parents, teachers and peers whom the younger individual might feel are in control of his intellectual-academic rewards and punishments (Patsula, 1969, p. 55).

Scoring. Each subject was presented with a pair of intellectual-academic descriptions and was requested to choose the one which most often happens to him. The three scores obtained in the present study gave the number of external (the scale is usually scored in the direction of internality) alternatives the individual endorsed

for positive intellectual reinforcements (IAR+), the number of external alternatives the individual endorsed for negative intellectual reinforcements (IAR-), (IAR+ + IAR- = IAR Total). A high score indicated belief in external control in intellectual-academic achievement, achievement situations whereas a low score indicated belief in internal control in such situations. (Key: E+ items 1a, 2b, 5b, 6b, 9a, 12b, 13a, 16a, 17b, 20b, 21a, 24b, 25a, 28a, 29b, 31a, 32b; E- items 3a, 4a, 7a, 8b, 10a, 11b, 14b, 15a, 18b, 19a, 22a, 23b, 26b, 27a, 30b, 33a, 34a). Middle class children (6 years 10 months to 12 years 5 months) of above average intelligence (mean Stanford-Binet I.Q. 117.6, s.d. 15.0), the (IAR+), (IAR-), and IAR Total) scores decreased only slightly with age and that girls tended to score less externally than boys (particularly from the sixth grade and on). Relatively low mean externality scores with small standard deviations and short ranges of sub-total and total scores have been reported for samples of boys, girls, and combined boys and girls at the elementary and secondary school levels.

Validity. Construct validation studies are reported by Crandall, Katkovsky and Crandall, 1965; Crandall, Katkovsky and Preston, 1962; Katkovsky, Crandall and Good, 1967; McGhee and Crandall, 1968. Further validity studies (Crandall, 1963) have indicated that individuals of internal orientation, particularly boys, exhibit more persistence, efficiency, and a greater conceptual approach to intellectual-type tasks than do individuals of external orientation.

Reliability. Crandall, Katkovsky and Crandall (1965) reported moderately high test-retest reliabilities (two months, .47 to .74;

$p < .001$) and internal consistency measures ($N = 130$; .54 to .60, corrected) for the separate scales. They also reported that self-responsibility for success and failure seemed to be more generalized at the eighth grade level than at the lower grade levels (Patsula, 1969, pp. 55-57).

TESTING PROCEDURE

In order to carry out this investigation the following procedure was set up. For both the hockey and non-hockey samples the investigator alone met with the various groups. In the non-hockey testing sessions the children were assured that their answers would neither be seen by their teachers nor turned into the office. The hockey groups were assured that their answers would not be seen by their coaches, managers or any other hockey officials. The subjects were told that there were no right or wrong answers. They were asked to do their own thinking and to put on their papers their own personal answers according to exactly what they thought themselves. Preliminary instruction regarding the marking of the rating scale was demonstrated. A sample of the instructions used with the questionnaire are included in Appendix A.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter will present the procedures for assessing the data, and the results of the statistical analysis of the same, followed by a short summary.

PROCEDURE FOR ASSESSING THE DATA

The data for this study were collected from tests administered to 125 Junior High School students in the city of Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. The data for both groups were collected in the designated places as reported under Sample in Chapter III. Upon meeting each group, standardized instructions were read in order to facilitate uniform administration of the questionnaire. Copies of directions for administering the questionnaire (Form A for the non-hockey groups and Form B for the hockey groups) are contained in Appendix A. Booklets containing three tests were allotted for each student. These testing instruments included the Internal-External Scale (IE), the Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale (FPPS) and the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR). The total testing time for each group was approximately one hour.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Questions Addressed to the Study

This section of the present chapter is addressed to presenting the answers to the questions asked in this study. The procedure was simply to

calculate percentages derived from the nomothetic data presented in Table I and Table II of Chapter III.

I. What is the average number of years of experience playing in the highly organized sport of hockey do the students bring to Bantam AA league?

The hockey sample comprised 60 players. The average age of the players was 14 years. Of the sixty players 57% played four years or less; 22% of the sample played five years; 15% of the sample played six years; 3% of the sample played seven years and 3% of the sample played eight years.

II. What is the pattern of representation in regard to the socio-economic groups?

The pattern that emerges for the representation of SES groups for both the hockey and non-hockey groups is depicted in Figure I.

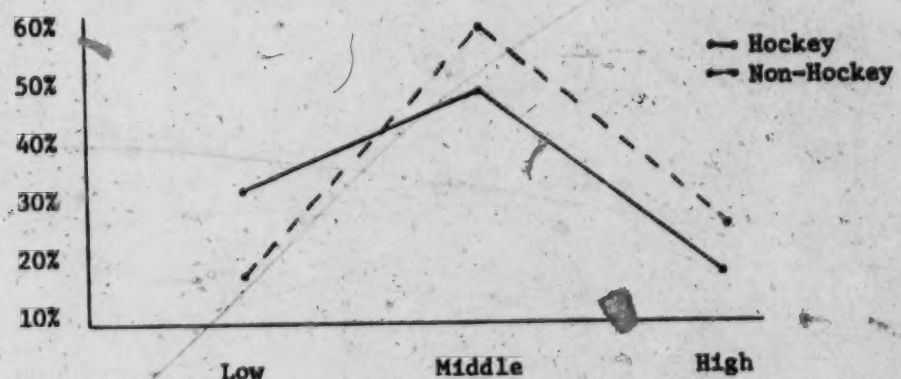

FIGURE I

SES OF SAMPLE

As seen in Figure I there is a higher representation of low SES in hockey samples while there is a higher representation of middle SES and high SES in the non-hockey sample.

Hypotheses Addressed to the Study

The first step in the statistical analysis was to determine whether the two samples (hockey, non-hockey) differed in SES as determined by the Blishen Scale (Blishen, 1967, pp. 741-753).

A t-test for independent samples was conducted and revealed no significant difference between hockey and non-hockey for the SES variable. Therefore Hypothesis I was accepted (Leabo, 1968, p. 228).

The subscales of the instrument (IE, FPPS, IAR+, IAR-) were subjected to factor analysis. Factor analysis is a mathematical technique which permits the examiner to consider several items or tests in terms of fewer and more manageable dimensions (Ferguson, 1966, p. 3). In order to generate a general powerlessness score (GP) and a school related powerlessness score (SRP), intercorrelations of the four powerlessness scales were calculated. The correlation matrix was then subjected to an incomplete principle components analysis, two components were extracted using Kaiser Normalized Varimax Criterion (Kaiser, 1958, pp. 187-200). The two components were then used to produce two component scores GP and an SRP score for each individual. The components thus obtained were intervening variables common to several subscales, whereas the factor loadings expressed the correlations between the subscales and the hypothetical constructs represented by each of the components.

Using Kaiser's Varimax Factor Rotation, each successive component was rotated orthogonally. Under the orthogonality restrictions, the variance of the squared loadings of components were thus maximized. Such orthogonal rotations facilitated the grouping of the subscales into unique components, the loadings from which component scores were obtained.

The FPPS and IE scales were found to have heavier loadings on

component I, which was named "General Powerlessness" (GP) because of the general nature of the items in both scales. Component II loaded more heavily on the two IAR subscales which were designed to measure the degree to which an individual felt that he caused his own successes and/or failures in intellectual achievement situations. Component II was named "School Related Powerlessness" (SRP) because it is specific to school situations. Once these components were isolated, a GP and an SRP were determined for each subject.

The hockey and non-hockey samples were then subdivided into low, middle and high socio-economic groups for the purposes of analyis. A description of the SES groups is reported in Chapter III.

A Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance by ranks was then carried out in order to determine whether the various samples were from the same population, that is, to test the hypotheses for each group. To apply this test all the observations for the k samples are ranked. The lowest value is assigned a rank of one, the next lowest two, and so on. The sum of ranks R_i for each of the k samples is obtained. A statistic H is calculated from the data using the following formula:

$$H = \frac{12}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left(\frac{R_i}{n_i} \right) - 3(N+1)$$

where n_i = number of observations in sample i

N = total number of observations

R_i = sum of ranks for sample i (Ferguson, 1966, p. 362)

The Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance tested Hypothesis II, which, when stated verbally, reads:

There is no significant difference between boys participating in

hockey and those who do not participate in hockey and a) feelings of general powerlessness (GP), b) feelings of school related powerlessness (SRP). These results are reported in Table III.

The results indicate that the H for both the GP and SRP variables was $>.05$ level of acceptance, therefore Hypothesis IIa and IIb did not receive support. There seems to be a difference between the hockey and non-hockey groups with regard to both variables GP and SRP but this difference is not large enough to be significant at the .05 level.

TABLE III

KRUSKAL-WALLIS ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GP AND FPPS

Variable	Sums of Ranks		Degrees of Freedom	H
	Hockey	Non-Hockey		
General Powerlessness	3820	4055	1	$>.05$
School Related Powerlessness	3758	4118	1	$>.05$

Following the Kruskal-Wallis analysis, a two-way Analysis of Variance was directed to Hypothesis III.

Hypothesis III states that there is no significant difference between the various SES groups and the following variables:

a) IAR+

b) IAR-

c) IAR Total

d) IE

e) SRP

f) GP

g) FPPS

The model used was a pxq design where p was the SES groups with three groups Low, Medium, High being considered, and factor q was the two samples of hockey and non-hockey (Winer, 1962, pp. 184-194).

A two-way analysis of variance was carried out with unequal observations per cell. First, the additive model was tested against a more general model, applying the least square technique to test the interaction effect (Division of Education Research Services, University of Alberta, ANOVA 25, 1969, pp. 1-7).

The interaction was found to be not significant therefore no interaction was assumed. This indicated that students of differing SES groups did not differ greatly whether they played hockey or not.

Table IV reports results of analysis of variance for the various SES groups on the different subtests.

Table IV indicates no support for Hypothesis III a, b, c, d, e. There is however, a statistically significant difference regarding the main effects of SES for the variables f (GP) and g (FPPS).

A homogeneity of variance test was carried out on both the GP and the FPPS variables. No significant results emerged.

An analysis of variance was then carried out on the GP and FPPS variables. Table V gives the outcome of this analysis and indicates that there are mean differences between the groups.

TABLE IV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR IAR+, IAR-, IAR TOTAL, IE, SRP, GP, FPPS

(This solution is least square solution under additivity assumption (no interaction).

Source	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of F
a) IAR+					
SA	14.85	2	7.42	1.19	0.30
SB	4.36	1	4.36	0.69	0.40
SE	755.0	121	6.23		
b) IAR-					
SA	.52	2	.26	0.04	0.95
SB	6.13	1	6.13	1.03	0.31
SE	719.28	121	5.94		
c) IAR Total					
SA	17.07	2	8.53	0.49	0.60
SB	.15	1	.15	0.008	0.92
SE	2074.57	121	17.14		
d) IE					
SA	44.35	2	22.17	1.58	0.20
SB	1.01	1	10.13	0.72	0.39
SE	1695.39	121	14.01		
e) SRP					
SA	10.31	2	5.15	0.46	0.62
SB	.20	1	.20	0.01	0.89
SE	1340.11	121	11.07		
f) GP					
SA	1306.2	2	653.06	5.67	0.004*
SB	29.19	1	26.19	0.22	0.63
SE	13922.40	121	115.06		
g) FPPS					
SA	1472.20	2	736.10	5.20	0.006*
SB	16.53	1	16.53	0.11	0.73
SE	17127.80	121	141.55		

* $p < .05$

TABLE V

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GP AND FPPS

Source	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of F
For GP LMH groups	1283.0	2	641.5	5.61	< .05
Error	13953.2	122	114.4		
For FPPS LMH groups	1465.0	2	732.5	5.21	< .05
Error	17144.2	122	140.5		

To ascertain which groups differed, a Scheffé multiple comparison of means was carried out and it revealed a significant difference < .05 between the middle SES and the high SES.

TABLE VI

SCHEFFÉ MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEANS OF SES GROUPS FOR GP AND FPPS[1]

	Low SES	Medium SES	High SES
Means (GP)	90.38	88.58	96.33
Low SES	———	.763	.111
Medium SES	.869	———	.005*
High SES	.097	.007*	———
Means (FPPS)	89.30	87.87	96.10

*p < .05

[1]probabilities for GP appear above the diagonal
probabilities for FPPS appear below the diagonal

Summary of Analyses of Data

The answers to the two questions addressed to the study revealed that over half (57%) of the hockey sample brought four years or less experience in organized hockey to their present division while 22% had played for five years; 15% had played six years, 37% had played seven years and 3% had played eight years.

There was a higher representation of low SES among the hockey sample and a higher representation of middle SES and high SES among the non-hockey sample.

The subscales of the instrument (IE, FPPS, IAR+, IAR-, were subjected to factor analysis in order to generate a general powerlessness score (GP) and a school related powerlessness score (SRP) for each student. It was found that the FPPS and the IE had heavier loadings on Component I (GP) and the two IAR subscales loaded more heavily on Component II (SRP). The hockey and non-hockey groups were then subdivided into low, middle and high socio-economic groups according to the Blishen scale.

A Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis by ranks gave support to the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between boys participating in hockey and those who do not participate in hockey and their feelings of general powerlessness or school related powerlessness.

An analysis of variance was then carried out to determine if the SES groups differed on any of the variables IAR+, IAR-, IAR Total, IE, FPPS, GP and SRP. No support emerged for the variables IAR+, IAR-, IAR Total, IE or SRP. However, a difference at the .05 level of significance was reported for the FPPS and the GP. This finding indicated that while no support was found for differences between the hockey and non-hockey groups, there was a reported difference between the SES groups. A Scheffe multiple

comparison of means was carried out and it revealed a significant difference between the middle SES group and the high SES group on both the GP and the FPPS variables.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Conclusions based on the findings of this investigation, as well as implications and recommendations for related research are discussed in the present chapter.

The present study was undertaken in order to explore the relationship of alienation and participation in highly organized sport.

To accomplish this task the operational definition of alienation accepted for this study was that of powerlessness. This definition was gleaned from Seeman's model of alienation and is described as "the expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behavior cannot determine the occurance of the outcomes or the reinforcements he seeks" (Seeman, 1959, p. 789). Alienation, as a synonym for powerlessness, emphasizes the sensed ability to be able to personally control outcomes in one's own life.

The sport chosen for study was hockey. For the purpose of the study two groups of children were investigated - a group of junior high school students who chose to participate in this team sport and a group of junior high school students who did not choose to participate in this team sport.

A random selection of one division of the E.M.H.A. was made. The Bantam AA South Side Division was selected. The South Side Division comprised six teams. From these teams a random selection of hockey players was made. All students were assigned SES scores according to the Blishen

SES Index and subsequently divided into Low, Middle and High SES groups.

The testing instruments included the (IE) Internal-External Scale; the (FPPS) Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale; the (IAR) Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire.

Conclusions and Implications

The sample selected for this study comprised 125 Junior High School boys. Sixty of the sample were randomly selected from the Bantam AA South Side Division. This group represented the hockey sample while a random selection of Junior High School boys who did not play organized sport represented the non-hockey sample. The average age of both groups was 14 years.

An inspection of the nomothetic data guided the answering of the questions directed to the study. The first question inquired as to the number of years of actual hockey (playing experience) the boys brought to their present team. Fifty-seven per cent of the sample brought four years or less experience to their present team; 22% had played for five years; 15% had played for six years; 3% had played for seven years and 3% had played for eight years.

From these findings it appears that less and less boys stay with organized hockey over the years. It is at this point that one is forced to question with Hansen "Are we creating a country of 'has beens' at the tender age of 15 or 16 years?" (Hansen, 1970, p. 31). Many critical statements have been directed to the undesireability of highly organized sports for children, yet these criticisms seem to go unwarranted. The second question addressed to the study inquired as to the patterns of SES which emerged in both the hockey and non-hockey samples. As previously reported, there was a higher representation of low SES among

the hockey sample and a higher representation of middle SES and high SES among the non-hockey sample. Upon inspection of the SES for the total sample as depicted in Figure I on page 33, it was concluded that the majority of both the hockey and non-hockey samples are of middle and high SES. This finding may account for part of the reason why alienation in this study seems to be more a function of the sample's SES rather than whether they play hockey or do not play hockey.

A t-test for independent samples was conducted and revealed no significant difference between hockey and non-hockey for the SES variable. This means that there was no significant difference in the SES levels of Junior High School boys who participate in the highly organized sport of hockey and those who do not participate in hockey.

The subscales of the instrument (IE, FPPS, IAR) were subjected to factor analysis in order to generate a general powerlessness score (GP) and a school-related powerlessness score (SRP). The hockey, non-hockey samples were then subdivided into low, middle and high socio-economic groups. A Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance by ranks was then carried out in order to test the hypothesis directed to each group. The results indicated that H for both the GP and the SRP was $>$ .05 level of acceptance, therefore there appears to be no significant difference between boys who participated and those who did not participate in the highly organized sport of hockey.

A two-way analysis of variance was carried out to test whether there was any significant difference among the various SES groups on the various subtests. The results indicated that there appears to be no difference between those boys who play hockey and those who do not play hockey in their performance on IAR+; IAR-; IAR Total; IE; and SRP.

However, there appears to be a significant difference regarding the main effects of SES on the GP and FPPS variables.

To find which SES groups differed on the variables GP and FPPS, a Scheffe multiple comparison of means revealed a significant difference at the .05 level between the middle SES and high SES groups for both variables.

At this point and based upon the outcome of this investigation, it seems that alienation as measured in the present study is more a function of SES rather than whether one has chosen to play hockey or not. This outcome seems to highlight one conclusion of A Proposed Sports Policy for Canadians, released from The Department of National Health and Welfare in 1970, which stated that " . . . the determining factor between involvement and non-involvement in sports and recreational activities is, usually money, personal disposable income" (Munro, 1970, p. 3).

Whatever differences exist may well be due to variables other than the fact that these students play or do not play hockey.

Suggestions for Further Research

The suggestions for further research are divided into two categories. First, research as a follow-up of the present study; and second, related research directed to minor hockey.

Further research that might prove meaningful if a replication of this study were undertaken might be to subdivide the samples by age, by years of experience in hockey, by ordinal position in the family, or into groups whose mothers are or are not working outside the home alone. After generating GP and SRP scores it might be more meaningful to add more variables, for example the ones indicated above and employ a multi-linear regression method of analysis.

Upon examination of the related research directed to problems of hockey as set out by De Stefano, one notes an almost total lack of objective investigation into the social and psychological components of hockey (De Stefano, 1971, p. 39).

De Stefano, in an article regarding research in hockey, stated that if Canada is to maintain a hold on its national sport which is purported to be hockey, research is necessary. De Stefano then listed a series of studies regarding hockey. A perusal of that list highlights a definite concern with the technical aspects of hockey and a paucity of attention to the psychological and sociological dimensions. In order to rectify this situation, the present author agrees with De Stefano that research is necessary and suggests studies that test the physical, social and psychological implications of highly organized sport for school age children (De Stefano, 1971, p. 39).

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE (A FORM)

GENERAL

With the current unrest among students throughout the world, it is of utmost importance that the frank opinions of students be communicated to educators and others. Many educators, parents and other adults have opinions on the attitudes of Junior High School students. However, such opinions may or may not be true. We are interested in getting closer to the true attitudes of students by having them tell us directly about themselves. You can help us by giving your own frank opinions to the statements in this questionnaire.

DIRECTIONS

PRINT the name of your school and grade at the top of the answer sheet provided. You may be sure that in spite of this, your answers on this paper will be kept in strictest confidence.

As you read each statement, decide how you feel about it, and then mark your answer on the special answer sheet. Use HB or H pencil. Please do not place any marks on the questionnaire booklet.

Indicate your own personal opinion of each statement. Do not indicate what you think you ought to believe or what other people want you to believe. Try to indicate what you really think about these statements.

Work quickly. Do not puzzle too long over any statement; we want your first reaction, not a long drawn-out thought process.

Answer every question. Be sure not to omit any questions.

There are no right or wrong answers. This is in no way a test of your intelligence or ability of any kind, but is simply a measure of your usual way of feeling or behaving.

REMEMBER

You need not fear that your opinions will be exposed. No one in this school will ever see your individual answers. When you finish, place your answer sheet and questionnaire booklet in the large brown envelope provided. (This envelope will be sealed after all the class papers have been placed in it).

PLEASE BEGIN

DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE (A FORM)

As introductory comments prior to distributing the questionnaire and answer sheets to the pupils, please read to them the following directions printed in upper-case letters.

YOU ARE REQUESTED TO FILL OUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE WHICH I WILL DISTRIBUTE TO YOU. THE PURPOSE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE IS TO GAIN A GENERAL IDEA OF THE OPINIONS OF EDMONTON STUDENTS ON QUESTIONS OF CONCERN TO STUDENTS BOTH IN ALBERTA AND IN OTHER PARTS OF THE WORLD.

IT IS HOPED THAT YOUR FRANK AND HONEST ANSWERS WILL ENABLE EDUCATORS TO BETTER UNDERSTAND AND PROVIDE FOR THE NEEDS OF INDIVIDUALS IN THE SCHOOLS.

FURTHER DIRECTIONS ARE PROVIDED FOR YOU ON THE QUESTIONNAIRES WHICH I WILL NOW PASS OUT TO YOU.

Hand out a questionnaire and answer sheet to each pupil. Please check to see that each pupil has an H or HB pencil, and then say the following:

I WILL READ ALOUD THE INSTRUCTIONS ON THE FIRST PAGE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE. PLEASE FOLLOW ALONG, READING THE INSTRUCTIONS SILENTLY WHILE I READ THEM ALOUD.

Also, please go over with the students the directions given for Section A of the questionnaire in order to ensure that the students understand how to mark the answer sheets properly.

Once again, please emphasize the use of H or HB pencils (fountain pens or ball-point pens are not to be used) for the marking of answers on the answer sheets.

QUESTIONNAIRE (B FORM)

GENERAL

With the current unrest among students throughout the world, it is of utmost importance that the frank opinions of students be communicated to educators and others. Many educators, parents and other adults have opinions on the attitudes of hockey players. However, such opinions may or may not be true. We are interested in getting closer to the true attitudes of students by having them tell us directly about themselves. You can help us by giving your own frank opinions to the statements in this questionnaire.

DIRECTIONS

PRINT the name of your Team and grade at the top of the answer sheet provided. You may be sure that in spite of this, your answers on this paper will be kept in strictest confidence.

As you read each statement, decide how you feel about it, and then mark your answer on the special answer sheet. Use HB or H pencil. Please do not place any marks on the questionnaire booklet.

Indicate your own personal opinion of each statement. Do not indicate what you think you ought to believe or what other people want you to believe. Try to indicate what you really think about these statements.

Work quickly. Do not puzzle too long over any statement; we want your first reaction, not a long drawn-out thought process.

Answer every question. Be sure not to omit any questions.

There are no right or wrong answers. This is in no way a test of intelligence or ability of any kind, but is simply a measure of your usual way of feeling or behaving.

REMEMBER

You need not fear that your opinions will be exposed. No one on this team or connected with this team will ever see your individual answers. When you finish, place your answer sheet and questionnaire booklet in the large brown envelope provided. (This envelope will be sealed after all the team papers have been placed in it).

PLEASE BEGIN

DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE (B FORM)

As introductory comments prior to distributing the questionnaire and answer sheets to the team members, please read to them the following directions printed in upper-case letters.

YOU ARE REQUESTED TO FILL OUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE WHICH I WILL DISTRIBUTE TO YOU. THE PURPOSE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE IS TO GAIN A GENERAL IDEA OF THE OPINIONS OF EDMONTON HOCKEY PLAYERS ON QUESTIONS OF CONCERN TO PLAYERS BOTH IN ALBERTA AND IN OTHER PARTS OF THE WORLD.

IT IS HOPED THAT YOUR FRANK AND HONEST ANSWERS WILL ENABLE EDUCATORS TO BETTER UNDERSTAND AND PROVIDE FOR THE NEEDS OF INDIVIDUALS ON HOCKEY TEAMS.

FURTHER DIRECTIONS ARE PROVIDED FOR YOU ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE WHICH I WILL NOW PASS OUT TO YOU.

Hand out a questionnaire and answer sheet to each pupil. Please check to see that each pupil has an H or HB pencil, and then say the following:

I WILL READ ALOUD THE INSTRUCTIONS ON THE FIRST PAGE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE. PLEASE FOLLOW ALONG, READING THE INSTRUCTIONS SILENTLY WHILE I READ THEM ALOUD.

Also, please go over with the students the directions given for Section A of the questionnaire in order to ensure that the team members understand how to mark the answer sheets properly.

Once again, please emphasize the use of H or HB pencils (fountain pens or ball-point pens are not to be used) for the marking of answers on the answer sheets.